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### A Comparison of Leadership Styles Between College Physical Education Instructors and College Football Coaches

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A Comparison of Leadership Styles  
Between College Physical Education Instructors  
and College Football Coaches

BY

Randy R. Megard

A thesis submitted  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the  
degree of Master of Science  
Major in Health, Physical Education, and Recreation  
South Dakota State University  
1986

A Comparison of Leadership Styles  
Between College Physical Education Instructors  
and College Football Coaches

This thesis is approved as a creditable and independent investigation by a candidate for the degree, Master of Science, and is acceptable for meeting the requirements for this degree. Acceptance of this thesis does not imply that the conclusions reached by the candidate are necessarily the conclusions of the major department.

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Megard, R. R. A comparison of leadership styles between college physical education instructors and college football coaches, 1986, 77 p. (J. E. Lidstone).

75 coaches (n=38) and physical education instructors (n=37) from 10 colleges and universities within the North Central Conference responded to a mailed survey by completing and returning the T-P Leadership Questionnaire. Response rate was 80.3%. The T-P measures perceived leadership style in the form of task orientation and people orientation variables.

Coaches and instructors were compared using a Student's t-test for independent samples. Results indicated a significant difference ( $p \leq .05$ ) between coaches and instructors on the task orientation variable. The mean task score for coaches was 13.29 while the task mean for instructors was 10.92. No significant difference was noted between the two groups on the people orientation variable. The group mean leadership styles for instructors and coaches were plotted on the Ohio State Leadership grid. Both groups emerged as being in the high task, high relationship quadrant.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to extend his sincere appreciation to his thesis advisor, Dr. Jim Lidstone, whose contribution and assistance greatly facilitated the completion of this study. I also wish to thank Dr. Jack Ewing and Dr. Darrell Jensen for their assistance and encouragement during this research project.

Third, I wish to acknowledge all of the coaches and instructors for their willingness to serve as subjects in the research. I also wish to thank all of the staff members, past and present, in the Department of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation at South Dakota State for the guidance and assistance given to me through the years at SDSU.

Finally, I wish to extend my deepest appreciation and gratitude to my wife Laurie, who, with her love and support greatly contributed to the successful completion of this research endeavor.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Societies could not exist without leadership.

Leadership is an organizer and a building block. While most people could, in a general sense, recognize leadership behavior, the intricacies of leadership are not so easily understood. One way researchers attempt to explain leadership is through leadership theories. Leadership theories are as varied as the instruments researchers use in an attempt to measure leadership. Currently, questionnaires and surveys developed by scholars in the field are the dominant method of measuring certain leadership behaviors or characteristics within a specified leadership theory. Obviously, the best way to measure leadership would be through intense one on one observation over an extended period of time. Since this method of investigation is not feasible for investigators gathering large quantities of data, the only remaining alternative is the use of paper and pencil instruments.

The study of leadership in physical education and athletics is a relatively new area but some groundwork has already been laid. Knickerbocker (1958) considered the primary function of a leader to be organizing the activities

of individuals toward the accomplishment of some end through controlling the means for the satisfaction of relevant needs of members of that group. Leadership is personality in action under group conditions. It includes dominant personality traits of an individual and receptive personality qualities of many persons (Bogardus, 1934).

Many terms and classifications have been used to describe leaders. Bogardus (1934) for example described leadership in relation to other people and things. Direct leaders deal with people whereas indirect leaders set forces in motion that eventually change the currents of human activity. An example of a direct leader would be a minister or teacher. Inventors such as Alexander Graham Bell and Thomas Edison are said to be indirect leaders because their inventions have tended to influence how we live.

Classifying leaders according to leadership style is another way of describing leaders. The Ohio leadership studies originally were intended to define a set of leader behavior descriptions (Allen, 1971). As a result of these studies the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was developed. It not only attempted to describe leader behavior but also to "assess the effectiveness of leadership acts" (Allen, 1971).

Another way to classify leadership is to identify the important and distinctive qualities of leaders. Certain

qualities within a leader can be used to determine a leadership style. Gouldner (1950) refers to these individual qualities as traits. Leadership could therefore be described in terms of "traits" possessed by the leader (Gibb, 1958; Gouldner, 1950).

Other terms commonly associated with leadership are democratic and authoritarian (Bogardus, 1934; Doll, 1972; Weber & Weber, 1961). Authoritarianism centers around decision making involving one person or small numbers of people (Doll, 1972). Democratic leaders usually reach decisions through group discussion and bargaining (Doll, 1972).

The concept of situational leadership has recently emerged as a dominant theory in leadership study. In this theory the specific surroundings or situation will dictate how a leader should behave. The situation includes everything in that environment; interpersonal relations with people, things and nature (Doll, 1972; Fiedler, 1967; Gouldner, 1950; Weber & Weber, 1961).

#### Statement of the Problem

Leadership in the areas of business and industry has been studied extensively. This research project proposes to identify and compare the leadership styles of college physical education instructors and college football coaches.

The essence of the project can be communicated in the following framing questions:

1. Do leadership styles vary among individuals?
2. Does the nature of one's work determine an leadership style or do certain types of leaders prefer certain occupations?
3. Do college football coaches and college physical education instructors have different leadership styles?

### The Hypotheses

Stated in null form, the following hypotheses will be tested as part of this research:

1. There will be no difference in task orientation (T score) as measured by the T-P Leadership Questionnaire between college physical education instructors and college football coaches.
2. There will be no difference in people orientation (P-score) as measured by the T-P Leadership Questionnaire between college physical education instructors and college football coaches.
3. There will be no difference in leadership style as measured by the T-P Leadership Questionnaire between college physical education instructors and college football coaches.

### Delimitations

The study involves college level coaches and teachers only. This study does not seek to determine any traits other than leadership style. Only colleges and universities within the North Central Conference namely, North Dakota State University, Mankato State University, St. Cloud State University, The University of South Dakota, South Dakota State University, The University of North Dakota, Augustana College, Morningside College, The University of Nebraska at Omaha and the The University of Northern Colorado were included. Data were gathered during the Spring 1985 academic semester.

### Definition of Terms

Leader. The leader is the individual given the task of coordinating and directing tasks that pertain to group activities (Pickman, 1980).

Leadership. Leadership is defined as "an interpersonal relation in which power and influence are unevenly distributed so that one person is able to direct and control the actions and behaviors of others to a greater extent than they direct and control his" (Fiedler, 1967).

Leadership Style. For the purpose of this investigation leadership style is used to describe the outward

manifestation of a leader's basic need structure which affects behavior in various situations (Fiedler, 1967).

Leadership Behavior. This term describes how a leader acts when carrying out the functions necessary in the leadership role (Allen, 1971).

Task Behavior. Task behavior is defined as the process by which leaders organize and define the roles of their followers (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).

Relationship Behavior. Relationship or "people" behavior is defined as the process by which leaders attempt to sustain personal relationships between themselves and their followers by maintaining open channels of communications and facilitating personal behaviors (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).

### Limitations

Due to time and financial constraints administration of the survey instrument took place in the absence of the researcher. Cover letters and questionnaire packets were delivered to all individuals through the mail. As such, 100% response was not attained. The data were limited to the self report responses of 38 college football coaches and 37 physical education instructors regarding their perceived leadership styles.

### Assumptions

For the purpose of this investigation the following assumptions are set forth by the researcher and are therefore not subject to validation as part of this research:

1. Because little information concerning validity and reliability of the instrument could be found, it is assumed that the T-P Leadership Questionnaire is a reliable and valid means of assessing perceived leadership style. Logical validity is claimed.
2. It is assumed that subjects responded in an honest manner to the behavioral items contained in the questionnaire.
3. It is assumed that physical education instructors responded to the questionnaire from a teaching leadership perspective as they were instructed to do.
4. It is assumed that college football coaches responded to the questionnaire from a coaching leadership perspective as they were instructed to do.

### Significance of the Study

While leadership research in business and industry has been fairly prolific, studies concerned with leadership in



physical education and athletic settings are scarce. For this reason the present study is justified.

Additionally, the researcher feels that leadership requirements between the physical education classroom and the athletic "field" could differ significantly because of the diverse nature of the two settings. Given the ever-widening gap between physical education and athletics brought on by increased emphasis on success and the business model, it is perhaps the case that coaches, because of increasing pressure to succeed and the accompanying scrutiny which that brings, may be more task conscious than physical educators. Conversely, physical educators, not subject to the same kinds of pressure, perhaps will have better opportunities to form social relationships with people. It is hoped that this study will provide some information regarding leadership behavior in physical education and athletics.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Human behavior is an extremely complex and multifaceted phenomenon and leadership is an interesting and relevant aspect of human behavior. As such, much has been written about the art and science of leadership. For ease of presentation the literature review is subdivided into (a) leadership theories, (b) leadership in non-sport settings, and (c) leadership in physical education and athletics.

#### Leadership Theories

Some of the pioneer research in the area of leadership was conducted by Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939). These researchers identified four types of leaders, (a) authoritarian, (b) democratic, (c) laissez-faire, and (d) bureaucratic. The authoritarian and the democratic styles of leadership are the most common. The authoritarian deals in a self-centered leadership role whereas a democratic leader shares decision making with the individuals he/she leads. On the other hand, the laissez-faire leader permits individuals so much freedom that group decisions are not likely to be made (Doll, 1972). Bureaucratic leaders rely upon their influence and power within the social and corporate structure to accomplish their goals.

Leaders have also been classified according to their personality. Bogardus (1934) identified three types of leaders, (a) social, (b) mental, and (c) executive. An example of a social leader would be a minister or a teacher. Social leaders often are required to perform in front of groups while the so-called mental leader prefers seclusion. Ideas are the chief product of the mental leader. Bogardus points out that practical ideas satisfy needs that enable an individual to maintain a certain position or status as a leader. The executive leader takes characteristics from both the social leader and the mental leader. This individual works in front of people and also devises new ideas.

### The Trait Theory

For years the most common characterization of leadership was the trait approach (Doll, 1972; Friedrichs, 1984; Gibb, 1958; Gouldner, 1950; Weber & Weber, 1961). According to Gibb (1958), effective leaders possess inherent personality traits or specific attributes of personality which others do not possess that enable and even predestine one to lead. Examples of traits conducive to leadership are empathy, surgency, recognition, helpfulness, emotional control, intelligence and interest (Doll, 1972). These inherited traits enable the leader to lead regardless of the nature of the situation (Weber & Weber, 1961).

Trait theory, from the beginning, has spawned research into personality traits that enhance leadership. Moore (1932) conducted trait theory research involving female leaders. The outstanding traits discovered were perseverance, trustworthiness, sympathy, friendliness, democratic attitudes, vitality, positiveness and enthusiasm. Marriner (1982) summarized trait leadership research and listed such qualities as enthusiasm, ambition, decisiveness, self-confidence, honesty, loyalty, dependability, affection, aggressiveness, energy, drive, honesty, and teaching skill.

In 1933 Brown conducted an investigation among high school student bodies to assess the qualities evident in high school leaders. The author reported that leaders differed from nonleaders in traits of scholarship, intelligence, social status and economic status.

The trait theory has recently come under intense scrutiny causing many leadership experts to question its validity. The trait theory implies that, (a) the personal qualities or traits that allow an individual to lead one group should also apply to effective leadership in other groups, and (b) an individual who is a leader in one group would tend to be a leader in other groups (Gouldner, 1950).

In criticism of this Gouldner examined the relationship between intelligence and leadership. He pointed out that,

whereas lower than average intelligence may inhibit access to leadership positions higher intelligence levels do not guarantee that one will become a successful leader. Some other criticisms of the trait approach are, (a) lists of traits compiled by researchers are not prioritized according to importance, (b) lists of traits are not "mutually exclusive," (c) traits lists usually do not classify which qualities are essential for maintenance of leadership positions and the ascent to leadership positions, (d) trait lists do not clarify whether traits are inherent in an individual or acquired, and (e) the traits responsible for leadership have been acquired to a large extent calling into question whether "inheritance" plays any role at all in determining who will adopt leadership positions (Gouldner, 1950; Weber & Weber, 1961).

The trait theory in and of itself seems incomplete. Thus researchers sought a more comprehensive theory of leadership. Gouldner (1958) stated that "it is impossible to talk about leadership traits in general, but only about the traits manifested in concrete, particular situations. Leadership traits are conceived of as varying from situation to situation and group to group" (p.76).

## Behavioral Research Studies

The Ohio State leadership studies attempted to view leadership behavior in terms of separate dimensions. Stogdill (1958) pointed out that the rationale for conducting the research lay in the following propositions:

1. Group organization is a visible "social phenomenon" within our society.
2. This phenomenon as such is a legitimate subject for scientific study.
3. The variables of organization within leadership behavior can be sorted out and defined in a scientific manner. (p.32)

These studies led to the development of the Ohio State Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LDBQ). The original LBDQ was constructed by Hemphill and Coons (1957) and was later revised by Halpin and Winer (1957). The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire contained 40 items describing specific behaviors of individual leaders. Following each item were the adverbs always, often, occasionally, seldom and never. The leader was to choose which adverb described most closely their behavior for each item (Christensen, Milner & Christensen, 1978). Doll (1972) and Bird (1977) noted that the LBDQ was designed to measure two separate components of leadership behavior, initiating structure (task structured leader), and consideration (social relationship of leaders). Research has

shown that highly structuring behaviors can lead to positive results but this may not occur in every case or situation (Friedrichs, 1984). Investigators seem to think that the effects of initiating structure and consideration are specified by the situation (Kerr, Schrieschriem, Murphy, & Stogdill, 1974). The Ohio State Leadership studies were significant in that they went beyond merely defining and describing leaders.

### Situational Leadership

Blake and Mouton (1982) stressed the need for more scientific methodology in leadership research. The authors identified that predominant leadership theories can be classified as either situational theories or "one most effective style" theories. In the first theory the leader adapts his/her behavior to fit the situation and in the second the leader changes the situation to accomodate his/her style of leadership. People who advocate the "one most effective style of leadership" use ten major emerging principles of human behavior that appear to be central to the exercise of effective leadership, (a) participation, (b) candor, (c) trust and respect, (d) involvement and commitment, (e) conflict resolution, (f) consensus, (g) synergy, (h) goals and objectives, (i) mutual support, and (j) change and development (Blake & Mouton, 1982). These

principles are subject to refinement and revision through future study and research. The key words related to scientific approach are said to be constant and provide a tactical basis for using them consistently no matter what the situation.

To assess leadership, situationists believe that leaders should change behaviors to accomodate changing tasks and changing environments. Researchers agree that traits are still important within the situational theory. Every leader portrays personality traits. The understanding of how and when certain qualities should be employed becomes the challenge. An effective leader understands the environment. Effective leaders understand that every environment is different somehow and must be dealt with accordingly (Doll, 1972; Friedrichs, 1984; Gouldner, 1950; Hersey & Blanchard, 1972; Stogdill, 1984; & Weber, 1961). Weber (1961) pointed out that many times leaders assume that group motives and goals are identical to the motives and goals of the leader. If leaders fail to understand situational forces in this way it can lead to bedlam.

Hersey and Blanchard (1972) developed situational theory in an attempt to prove that leadership style can be measured and classified according to the situation. Two components of leadership style (task and relationship) are measured, each in varying degrees (low and high). Structure or task refers to an individual's emphasis on getting the job done while



relationship (consideration) involves the degree of personal feeling and understanding between group and leader (Case, 1984; Friedrichs, 1984; Hersey & Blanchard, 1972; O'Hanlon, 1978). Based upon task and relationship scores individuals can be placed in one of four quadrants (a) high task, low relationship, (b) high task, high relationship, (c) low task, high relationship and (d) low task, low relationship.

The maturity level of the follower is also a critical part of the situational model. Followers are seen as ranging from low to high maturity and the leader varies his/her behavior accordingly. Low level followers require a high task low relationship approach while highly mature followers respond best to a low task, low relationship or "laissez-faire" style of leadership. For followers of below average maturity, leaders should incorporate a high task, low relationship style. As maturity level rises, relationship behaviors can also be increased by the leader. For above average maturity followers the high task, high relationship approach may be best (Case, 1984; Hersey & Blanchard, 1972; O' Hanlon, 1978).

Contingency theory in group research studies is based on the idea that the effectiveness of the group is contingent upon the way the group adapts to uncertainty within its environment (Whorton, 1983). Fred E. Fiedler at the University of Illinois, centered his attention on the

situational theory and summarized the research findings within a model of "leadership effectiveness" (Pickman, 1980). Group effectiveness was determined by two interacting factors, personality of the leader, and the amount of control and influence which the situation provided for the leaders over the behavior of their group (Fiedler, 1967).

In testing hypotheses derived from his theory, Fielder used an instrument designed by Stephenson and Warrington which contained statements about a particular person they least liked to work with (Allen, 1971). Consequently, this technique became aptly known as the Least Preferred Co-Worker Scale (LPC). The key principle of the LPC is the ability of the respondent to describe this least liked individual that the respondent has worked with. The LPC uses a changing term differential by which leadership style is assessed using responses on an "eight-point bipolar adjective scale" (Pickman, 1980). An individual's score is the sum of 18 scaled scores. The rationale behind the measurement device is that the respondent, when expressing an attitude about a least-liked coworker, is actually indicating his/her own leadership style (Fiedler, 1967). Low LPC scores indicate that a leader is more task conscious while a high LPC score signifies that a leader is more preoccupied with personal relations (Allen, 1971; Pickman, 1980). Middle LPC leaders

tend to be socially independent and less concerned about the way others evaluate them. These individuals are less eager to conform to others' expectations (Fiedler & Chemers, 1976; Mai-Dalton, 1975).

### Path-Goal Theory

In House's (1974) path-goal theory the leader's role is seen as stimulating group members toward the achievement of a particular goal. The theory evolved from Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory. Path-goal theory stresses the importance of the perspective that both the leader's and follower's interests and needs are critical to the overall leader-group outcome. The theory operates on the following two propositions:

1. Leader behavior is acceptable and satisfying to the extent that the subordinates perceive such behavior as an immediate source of satisfaction, or as instrumental to future satisfaction.
2. Leader behavior will be motivating to the extent that it satisfies subordinate needs contingent on effective performance and complements the environment of subordinates by providing guidance, clarity of direction, and reward necessary for effective performance (House & Mitchell, 1974, p. 83).

Both propositions show the relationship that is needed between leader and group. Leader behavior is dependent on subordinate satisfaction (intrinsic) and satisfaction relating to needs concerning performance and outcome.

### Leadership in Non-Sport Settings

Stogdill (1948) reviewed 124 studies dealing with leadership traits in an educational setting. The review indicated overall that an individual in a leadership position will most likely exceed group members in terms of intelligence, dependability, scholarship, activity, school participation, exercising responsibility and socio-economic status.

Although it was generally acknowledged to be overly simplistic, trait research has relevance to the situational and the behavioral theories. Stogdill (1948) concluded that with inconsistency of trait patterns from one leader to another there must be other factors such as relevant relationships toward activities and goals of group members that are important.

Doll (1972) described leadership in relation to schools in a distinctive manner. Similar to classroom teachers, school administrators each have their own individual leadership styles. Leaders demonstrate their style by ways in which they behave. Differing leadership styles appear evident in every organization which contains a number of leaders.

Some studies have attempted to investigate the style of the leader in supportive and nonsupportive roles. These studies not only tried to measure leadership style but also

leadership effectiveness. In a study completed by Remland, Jacobson and Jones (1983) it was found that the manager who operated in a supportive role was rated higher in overall leadership performance. The subjects for this study were taken from an undergraduate psychology class as part of a class project. Another significant finding was that the manager was rated more considerate by male subjects than female subjects. One explanation offered was that females tend to expect more considerate behavior from a manager than their male counterparts. Behavior identified as supportive included leaning forward, speaking in a soft clear voice, smiling, and nodding. Behavior such as leaning back, exhibiting a stern face, interrupting, and a firm voice were all examples of nonsupportive behavior.

Leadership effectiveness can be measured using many terms and variables. Leadership effectiveness depends on the relationship between leader and follower. Some authors have examined the relationship between leader style and subordinate job satisfaction. A number of investigators have found that supportive behaviors directed toward subordinates by leaders produce positive effects concerning employee job satisfaction (Argyle, Gardner, & Cioffi, 1958; Hemphill, 1957; Spector, Clark & Glickman, 1960).

Petty and Lee (1975) examined employees in nonacademic divisions of a university. The authors found that subordinates who rated supervisors higher in consideration

had greater job satisfaction and the correlation was higher for followers with female leaders than those with male supervisors.

Similar results were found in Whorton's (1983) study. The investigator examined 45 Arizona schools and 4 British school systems. For leadership style both the Least Preferred Co-Worker Scale (LPC) and Group Atmosphere Scale (GAS) were significant positive predictors of perceived effectiveness. Even though there was little difference in mean leadership style scores between American and British subjects, the schools that were most effective were those where the leader's style was recognized to be humanistic and the leader's perception of the teachers was positive.

Woodall and Hill (1982) used the concept of empathy to predict leadership style. The researchers took 127 undergraduate students and placed them in a small group setting. Leadership style was determined using the LPC. The investigators used Hobart and Fahlberg's predictive empathy scale to measure empathy and the Barrett-Lennards Relationship Inventory to measure perceived empathy. Results indicated that a low positive relationship did exist between predicted empathy and leadership style. The investigators concluded that the Barrett-Lennards Relationship Inventory did not appear to be a good predictor of leader style given the modest relationship that occurred with the Hobart and

Fahlberg predictive empathy measure and leadership style. The investigators stated the need for identifying other factors that might be components of leadership style which would account for more of the variance (Woodall & Hill, 1982).

Sergiovanni, Metzcus and Burden (1969) investigated the relationship between leadership styles and a certain system orientation. They hypothesized that hygiene oriented teachers would prefer people-oriented leader styles as compared to motivation oriented teachers preferring a systems-oriented (task) style. A hygiene oriented teacher is said to be extrinsically motivated whereas a motivation oriented leader is intrinsically motivated. Two hundred and twenty-seven teachers participated representing most grade levels (elementary through secondary). Subjects were asked to describe the behavior of the "ideal" principal and not one's own supervisor when completing the LBDQ XII questionnaire. First the investigators, employing the Choice-Motivator Scale, attempted to classify teachers as either hygiene orientated or motivation orientated. The fourth revision of the LBDQ XII was used to measure leadership style which classified leaders as either people-oriented or system-oriented (task).

Both hypotheses in this study were rejected. The authors speculated that teachers, regardless of need orientation, see the ideal supervisor as being both person-

oriented and system-oriented. Effective leadership style seems to be dependent on both dimensions. The authors concede that "the exact proportions of this mix, however, still remain a mystery" (Sergiovanni, Metzcus & Burden, 1969, p. 63).

Erez (1980) compared leadership style to social intelligence and social orientation. The investigator determined two styles, field independent leaders and field dependent leaders. Field independent individuals differentiate between task and the interpersonal characteristics of their employees. Field independent leaders are said to be non-socially oriented. Field dependent persons favor a more social relationship with their employees. The investigators collected data from 45 managers with engineering backgrounds. It was found that field independent leaders related positively to employee-centered leader styles. The researchers attributed "social intelligence" as one reason why field independent leaders related positively to the employee-centered leadership style. Field independent individuals related negatively to social orientation and the job-centered leadership style. This study is particularly relevant because it supports a multi-dimensional (behavioral, situational and trait) approach to leadership.



## Leadership Studies in Physical Education and Athletics

Early research in physical education and athletics primarily focused on the trait and personality characteristics of coaches (Pickman, 1980). More recently, research has changed to include behavioral, situational, gender, and effectiveness leadership studies. This section will be subdivided into (a) leadership studies involving gender, and (b) other studies concerning leadership in physical education and athletics.

### Leadership Studies Involving Gender

An increasing volume of literature is emerging relative to the issue of gender differences in leadership style and behavior. Eskilson and Wiley (1967) have stated that in the past leadership studies basically focused on males. The women's movement during the 60's and 70's influenced researchers to abandon the "male-only" leadership perspective. "Such cultural changes highlighted the need for research comparing the behavior of the male and female leaders, the reactions of others to their leadership and the varying contexts in which leadership occurs" (Eskilson & Wiley, 1967, p. 183).

Young (1981) studied coaches of 89 varsity basketball teams representing high schools in two large suburban school

districts in the mid-Atlantic region of the country. Forty-four of the teams were boys' teams coached by males and 45 teams were girls' teams. The girls' teams were coached by 26 female coaches and 19 male coaches. All coaches were teachers and all but three taught in the school where he or she coached. The investigator assessed leader behavior characteristics using the LBDQ Form XII. Leadership style was measured using the Least Preferred Co-Worker Scale. Results indicated a significant difference between males and females on measured leadership characteristics. Concerning the question of leadership effectiveness it was found that male and female coaches were equal in terms of win-loss records. Researchers may conclude from Young's study concerning effectiveness that leadership behavior did vary according to gender, but both male and female coaches were equally effective.

Christensen, Milner and Christensen (1978) attempted to analyze faculty perceptions of leader qualities for both male and female department heads of physical education. The investigators measured two dimensions of leadership, consideration and initiation of structure. A department head is said to be considerate when he/she shows friendship, respect, mutual trust and warmth to the members of the leader's staff (Halpin, 1956). Initiation of structure refers to specified organizational standards and the ability

of the leader to establish proper channels of communication within a functional (working) environment (Halpin, 1956). Initiation of structure excludes personal feelings, warmth and human relationships between a group and its leader. Background information was gathered by the authors using biographical information sheets. The LBDQ was used to measure perceived leadership styles (faculty) and actual leadership styles (department heads). Results indicated that female faculty members perceived female department heads to be significantly higher than male department heads in initiation of structure. Male and female faculty members perceptions of male department heads did not differ significantly on initiation of structure. Also, male faculty perceptions of initiation of structure including both male and female department heads did not differ significantly from female faculty perceptions. Some significant findings were discovered under the "consideration" dimension. Male faculty perceived male department heads higher on consideration than female faculty members. This finding supports the conclusion of Remland et. al (1983) that perhaps females expect more considerate leader behavior than males. No significant difference was found between male and female department heads when measuring the variable of consideration as it was perceived by female faculty members. The findings suggest that perhaps male and female department heads alter leader behavior depending on which gender a department head is .

interacting with at a specified time.

Allen's (1971) study included 27 administrators of college and university departments of physical education for women and 176 full-time faculty members from these departments. The investigator proposed to identify group and leader perceptions of leader behavior and also to measure leader style, position authority and group acceptance of selected female physical education administrators. Lastly the author wanted to identify relationships between perceived leader behavior, leader position authority, group atmosphere and leadership style. Four instruments were employed by the investigator to measure the variables of interest. The LBDQ XII measured initiating structure, role assumption, tolerance of freedom, and consideration. A special adaptation of the Position Authority Scale (study specific), the LPC and GAS (Group Atmosphere Scale) were the other three instruments used. Allen concluded that administrators, as a group, did not clearly favor any one leadership style, although there was non-significant difference between consideration and initiation of structure with consideration rated slightly higher. Most departments had significant disagreements between department head and faculty leadership perceptions on one or more behavior subscales. Also, estimates and perceptions of faculty members varied significantly within the various departments.

Kemp (1977) investigated selected physical educators' perceptions of leadership behavior of female physical education administrators. The sample included 129 faculty members from eight colleges and universities. The author used a Q-sort method to evaluate responses and statement content was represented by Stogdill's concept of leader behavior dimensions. The concept of leader behavior dimensions includes initiating structure, containing the subcategories of initiation and production emphasis, and consideration structure, including the subcategories of consideration and tolerance of uncertainty. The data showed that female administrators were perceived as relating more to the subcategories of initiation of structure and tolerance of uncertainty. Significant differences were found regarding perceptions of physical educators relating to subcategories and statements orientation in both leader behavior dimensions. No significant differences were found between leader behavior dimension subcategories and the main variable, gender.

Keane and Cheffer (1978) investigated leader style and behavior characteristics between players and coaches, five male and five female. Six players were chosen at random from each team. The players were administered the LBDQ XII and were asked to assess the leadership style of the coach. The coach was then asked to assess his/her own leadership style using the Least Preferred Co-worker scale.

Results suggested that gender of the coach was not a significant factor in leadership style or behavior. Significant differences were found within sexes rather than between female and male.

Studies concerning the relationship between leadership and gender have varied significantly to date. The studies identified above have used either the LBDQ or the LBDQ XII to measure perceived leader behavior. Allen (1971) is the only study mentioned thus far that did not compare female and male leader characteristics. It was found that males and females differed significantly on some leadership behavior characteristics (Christensen, Milner & Christensen, 1978; Young, 1981). Young (1981) also compared leader style to coaching effectiveness using win-loss records but found that females and males were equally effective. The Keane and Cheffer (1978) study concluded that coaching gender was not a factor in leader style. Most significant differences were found within sexes and not between (Keane & Cheffers, 1978). Allen (1971) did not compare sexes but used only females in that study. The investigator found that women administrators did not clearly favor one leader style. Kemp (1977) compared female physical education administrators using the concept of leader behavior dimensions and found that sex was not a significant factor regarding perceptions of selected physical education faculty members.

Based upon this diverse information, one might conclude that gender has little to do with administrator or coaching behavior and style. The major difference may lie with individual background, environment, experience and personality variables that exist in all individuals not just between males and females. The competing theory is that males and females do differ in leader characteristics. Christensen, Milner and Christensen (1978) found by comparing certain behavior characteristics that females and males, whether department head or faculty, did significantly differ on measured variables of perception. Remland, Jacobson and Jones (1983) also stated that females can differ from males on certain aspects of leader behavior. Along with this we must be cognizant of individual differences in heritage, personality, experience, and environment. Such an acknowledgement points out the need for a multi-dimensional analysis of leadership.

#### Other Studies Concerning Leadership in Physical Education and Athletics

Johnson (1976) studied the relationships between administrator personality and faculty perception of the administrator's success within physical education departments. The author reached three conclusions regarding administrator success. The first involved

relationship to role perception. Administrators and faculty members who perceive and behave as each thinks the other should behave will lead to administrator success when carrying out tasks within that department. The second conclusion stated that administrators who behave powerfully involving leadership and authority will be "less successful" in the opinion of the faculty. Finally, an administrator who is cheerful and possesses an even disposition was viewed by the faculty as being "more successful".

In a cross-cultural study, Cho (1985) investigated the differences in leadership style between physical education administrators in the United States and Korea. Using a t-test for independent samples the investigator found that no significant difference existed on the task variable but a significant difference was found concerning the people variable. United States physical education administrators scored significantly higher than the Korean physical education administrators on people orientation. The author speculated that this difference is perhaps due to social and cultural differences between the two countries regarding social status and authority.

A number of studies have attempted to relate leadership to team success. Brooks (1974) related team success to personality and leadership style. First the investigator obtained personality profiles of selected unsuccessful and successful coaches. Next the author assessed leadership



styles of selected college baseball and basketball coaches. Finally, Brooks measured the perceived leadership of the various college teams. The author stated that no significant difference was found between baseball coaches, team captains, and players on selected personality traits. The measured trait of aggression was seen to be lower with successful basketball and baseball coaches. No significant difference was found between successful and unsuccessful coaches concerning leadership style. Also, no unique style characterized successful coaches or unsuccessful coaches. According to Brooks this seemed to support the situational leadership theory.

Pickman (1980) also related team success to leader style using male high school basketball players and coaches. He found that leader styles of coaches appeared to be unrelated to team success. The author also compared teams that qualified for playoffs to teams that had not and concluded that leadership style appeared to be no different between the two groups.

Vos Strache (1979) sought to measure players' perceptions of leader qualities for coaches. The investigator also used the variables of winning and losing in the study. The sample included 29 women's varsity basketball programs at the college and university level. The

author employed the LBDQ Actual Form XII and the LBDQ Ideal Form. Uncertainty, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, persuasiveness, representation and demand reconciliation were descriptions of leader behavior that the author attempted to measure. Results revealed that players on losing teams perceived the coach to be more tolerant of uncertainty. Players on winning teams perceived coaches as high in production emphasis, predictive accuracy and persuasiveness. "It appears that they were perceived as having helped subordinates clarify realistic expectations and as having reduced barriers to goal accomplishment in a more effective manner than losing coaches" (Vos Strache, 1979, p. 682). Losing coaches were able to accept anxiety and uncertainty without being upset or anxious. The author speculated that losing coaches may not have been concerned with production. Lack of production emphasis according to the author leads to a certain degree of indecision by the coach thus not enabling the coach to lead one's team down the path of team success. The investigator concluded that effective coaches should recognize factors such as persuasiveness, predictive accuracy, and production emphasis, and suggested that implementation of these variables could maximize coaching effectiveness and style (Vos Strache, 1979).

Bird (1977) attempted to predict success using the variable "cohesion". Cohesion refers to how well an individual relates to another on a team or the "close-

knittedness" of the group. Supposedly, the greater the relationship among team members, the greater the cohesion of the team itself. The investigator hypothesized that greater team cohesion would lead to more successful outcomes and that more successful teams of this caliber would be coached by task-oriented leaders. The authors' study verified that cohesion was related to the success of interacting sport teams. Winning coaches also were perceived to have a greater degree of initiating structure than losing coaches.

Wardell (1977) investigated the relationship between leader style and team success. The author's sample consisted of 84 male coaches (football, basketball, wrestling, track and field) from selected high schools in Utah. The investigator used the Least Preferred Co-Worker Scale (LPC) to measure leadership style and the Group Atmosphere Scale (GAS) to measure leader-member relations. Team success was defined as the coach's winning percentage from the most recent season. The investigator found that, concerning basketball, and track and field, no significant relationship was discovered between leadership style and team success.

Friedrich (1984) also related leadership variables to win/loss record. The investigator found that the variables which predicted success were few and varied. The author also measured athlete satisfaction. The study showed that leader

behavior dimensions and coach attributes were the most important predictors of athlete satisfaction. More specifically, the author found that rewarding and social support behaviors positively related to athlete satisfaction. The author did point out that coaches who engaged more in social supportive behaviors with group members were likely to have poorer win-loss records than those who did not.

In a study that attempted to relate leadership style to the success of NCAA Division II head football coaches, Anderson (1986) employed the T-P Leadership Questionnaire. Using stepwise multiple regression procedures he concluded that the task and people variables, in combination, accounted for a small but significant percentage (14.9%) of the variability in the dependent variable (coach's career winning percentage). When a third variable, years as a Division II head coach, was included in the analysis the amount of explained variability was raised to almost 25% suggesting that years of experience in combination with leadership style is an important determinant of coaching success. When subjects were categorized according to high (above .550), medium (.451 to .549), and low (less than .450) success, the mean leadership styles for all three groups appeared in the high task, high relationship quadrant of the Ohio State Leadership grid (Anderson, 1986).

Brooks (1982) investigated the leadership style of selected basketball coaches from elementary through the professional level. The study proposed to measure leader style and to investigate the relationship between the LPC and the T-P Leadership Questionnaire. Brooks also attempted to relate leader style with the criteria coaches use to select players. The study did not find a significant relationship between measures obtained from the LPC scale and the variables of people-oriented and task-oriented leadership (T-P Leadership Questionnaire). The reason given for this was that each instrument measures different dimensions of leadership styles. Using the T-P, Brooks found that coaches tended to be task oriented ( $M = 15.41$ ). The highest attainable score on the T-P task dimension is 20. In contrast, people-orientation scores were low for the coaches studied ( $M = 6.86$ ). The maximum score possible is 15 on this dimension. The investigator concluded that coaches that attended this basketball camp were more concerned with winning the contest than developing personal relations (Brooks, 1982).

### Summary

In some of the studies reviewed, leadership style does not appear to be related to team success (Brooks, 1974; Pickman, 1980; Swartz, 1973). However other studies have identified certain characteristics that seem to be related to

success (Johnson, 1976; Bird, 1977; Vos Strache, 1979; Green, 1980; Anderson, 1986). These leader behavior characteristics vary widely from one study to the next. Some advocate personality trait theory while others proclaim that situational theory is most appropriate. Research has also evolved from path-goal leadership theory and behavioral leader theory. The question then becomes, where do researchers begin looking when trying to identify what is effective?

In the few short years leadership has been examined in physical education and athletics many areas have been researched. Some areas received more extensive examination than others. Earlier studies focused on the trait and personality studies of coaches (Pickman, 1980). Campbell (1969) stated that the coaching field has developed a "militaristic" image and this seems to be supported somewhat in the literature. One can relate militaristic coaching to behaviors that are highly structured and highly initiated. High structure and initiation tends to be task related and delineated from social consideration. Perhaps the authoritarian approach to coaching is still the model that many coaches adopt while leading the group. According to Murray (1986) the authoritarian coach may be necessary for success in our fast-paced modern sport. The author used the example of a stressful game situation, such as a 30 second

time-out in basketball. "This is obviously not the time for participatory or democratic decision making" (Murray, 1986, p. 95). As Friedrichs (1984) stated, "In collegiate athletics, where win/loss records may be critical in keeping a job, less social support may be desirable" (p. 76). This statement tends to suggest that, at the college level, getting the job done (task) is more important than social support (consideration or people-orientation).

Research in physical education and athletics has expanded into many different areas. Theories of leadership including behavioral, trait, situational, contingency and path-goal can and are related to athletics and physical education in different forms and combinations. Leadership is a concept found in all aspects of life but nowhere is it more evident than on the field of play. With the increased interest in this area we are moving closer in our understanding of the relationship between leadership and physical education/athletics. Hopefully, the present investigation will move us further along toward our goal.

### Chapter III

#### METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to compare the perceived leadership styles of college football coaches and college physical education instructors. More specifically, the study attempted to identify similarities or differences between coaches and teachers on measured variables taken from the T-P Leadership Questionnaire. Data were gathered during the Spring 1985 academic semester using the T-P Leadership Questionnaire (Appendix A).

#### Data Collection Instrument

The T-P Leadership Questionnaire originated from the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire Form XII (Brooks, 1982) developed by Sergiovanni, Metzcus and Burden (1969). It is designed to measure two variables, task orientation and people orientation. The T-P contains 35 items describing leader behavior. Beside each item are five adverbs: always, often, occasionally, seldom and never. Individuals can score a maximum of 20 on the task variable and 15 on the people variable with 0 being the lowest possible score for each.

The T-P Leadership Questionnaire, obviously, is not the only questionnaire available that measures leadership style. After considerable discussion with experts in the field the



decision was made to use the T-P Leadership Questionnaire in this study.

This decision was based on the following factors:

1. The T-P Leadership Questionnaire can be completed in a very short period of time (10-15 minutes) making it more likely to be returned by the subjects.
2. The T-P Leadership Questionnaire is easily scored and interpreted by the investigator (Appendix B).
3. The T-P Leadership Questionnaire was derived from a scientifically constructed and widely used instrument, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire.
4. The T-P Leadership Questionnaire has content (logical) validity for use in physical education and athletics.

Since the T-P Leadership Questionnaire is comparatively new some difficulty was encountered in uncovering information relative to the validity and reliability of the instrument. In its present form the T-P assesses the leader's perception of his/her leadership behavior. Hopefully, in the future, research will be conducted which will compare perceived leader behavior, as measured by the T-P, and observed or actual leader behavior. Readers of this study should be warned that "perceived" leader behavior may not necessarily translate into "actual" leader behavior.

In evaluating the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, the forerunner of the T-P, Halpin (1956) investigated the reliability of the initiation of structure

and consideration subscales and reported these values to be above .80 and .90 respectively. Stogdill (1969) also evaluated the subscales and determined them to be valid in terms of construct validity.

#### Determination of the Sample

This study was conducted using the 10 colleges and universities within the North Central Conference. These included: Mankato State University, St. Cloud State University, The University of Nebraska at Omaha, South Dakota State University, Augustana College, The University of South Dakota, North Dakota State University, The University of Northern Colorado, The University of North Dakota and Morningside College. These colleges and universities were chosen because of their high standards in both academics and athletics and also because they were perceived to be representative of institutions of higher learning in the midwest.

Names of football coaches and physical education instructors were taken from the 1984-1985 National Directory of College Athletics (Men's Edition) and the Physical Education Gold Book respectively. All 10 North Central Conference schools have varsity football programs whereas only 8 member schools were represented in the Physical Education Gold Book.

### Administration of the Survey

A list was compiled of football coaches and physical education instructors within North Central Conference colleges and universities. A total of 44 football coaches and 46 physical education instructors were identified to participate in the study.

Subjects first received an initial letter in which the researcher introduced himself and explained the purpose of the study (Appendix C). Included with the introductory letter was a letter of endorsement from the Research Coordinator of the Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation at South Dakota State University (Appendix D). Approximately one week later the subjects were sent the questionnaire packet containing a cover letter (Appendix E) and the T-P Leadership Questionnaire. A special code was placed at the top of each questionnaire so the researcher could determine who had or had not returned the survey instrument. The cover letter contained added information about the study and also contained instructions for completing the questionnaire. A pre-addressed stamped envelope was provided for the individual to return the questionnaire to the researcher.

Initially follow-ups, in the form of reminder letters and a second questionnaire administration, were planned for

subjects who did not return the questionnaire but due to cost factors coupled with the surprisingly high completion and return rate on the initial administration this procedure was not incorporated.

### Data Analysis

Upon receipt of the completed questionnaires the instruments were hand-scored by the investigator using the T-P Leadership Questionnaire scoring instructions (Appendix B). Task orientation scores and people orientation scores were determined for each individual.

Once a task and people score had been calculated for each subject the data were entered into the IBM 370 computer at South Dakota State University and analyzed using the tenth release of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSx). Descriptive statistics for both teachers and coaches concerning the measured variables (people and task) were computed. Student's t-tests for independent samples were also carried out to determine whether or not group differences existed on the variables of interest.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to compare the perceived leadership styles of college football coaches and college physical education instructors. More specifically this study attempted to identify similarities or differences between coaches and teachers on measured variables taken from the T-P Leadership Questionnaire.

#### Results

The sample consisted of college physical education instructors and college football coaches from North Central Conference Colleges and Universities. They were (a) Mankato State University, (b) North Dakota State University, (c) South Dakota State University, (d) St Cloud State University, (e) The University of South Dakota, (f) The University of North Dakota, (g) The University of Nebraska at Omaha, (h) The University of Northern Colorado, (i) Augustana College, and (j) Morningside College.

The total group solicited consisted of 90 people, 46 physical educators and 44 coaches. As can be seen in Table 1, the rate of response was very good. Thirty-seven of 46 instructors returned the completed T-P Questionnaire for a response rate of 80.4%.

Table 1

## Questionnaire Response from Coaches and Instructors

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	Instructors	Coaches	Total
Returned	37	38	75
Not Returned	9	6	15
Return %	80.4	86.4	80.3

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For the coaches, 38 of 44 questionnaires (86.4%) were returned. This represents an overall return percentage of 83.3% which is outstanding for a mailed survey.

Table 2 presents a grouped frequency distribution of task orientation scores for college physical educators. The 9-12 frequency range contains the highest percentage of observations at 43.2%. The second highest percentage range is the 13-16 spread containing 29.7% of the observations. The 5-8 range contained 16.2% of the observations and lastly, the two extreme ranges contained 5.4% of the observations.

Table 2

## Task Orientation Scores for Instructors

(n=37)

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Range	f	%	cf	c%
17-20	2	5.4	37	100.0
13-16	11	29.7	35	94.6
9-12	16	43.2	24	64.9
5-8	6	16.2	8	21.6
1-4	2	5.4	2	5.4

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In examining the distribution of scores for coaches it can be seen that 43.2% of the observations fall in the 9-12 range (Table 3). The 13-16 range contained 31.6% of the observations. The 17-20 range encompassed a smaller percentage (23.7%) while only 10.5% of the responses fell in the 5-8 range with the no observations appearing in the 1-4 interval.

Table 3  
Task Orientation Scores for Coaches (n = 38)

Range	f	%	cf	c%
17-20	9	23.7	38	100.0
13-16	12	31.6	29	76.3
9-12	13	34.2	17	44.7
5-8	4	10.5	4	10.5
1-4	0	0.0	0	0.0

Comparing Tables 2 and 3 it is apparent that the 9 to 12 range contains the highest observation percentage for each group with instructors having 9.0% more than coaches. The largest difference between instructors and coaches is the 17-20 range with coaches approximately 18.3% higher than instructors.

People orientation frequency scores are found in Tables 4 and 5. Table 4 illustrates frequency scores concerning the variable people for physical education instructors. The 10 to 12 observation range contained, by far, the highest percentage of observations (51.4%) with the 7 to 9 range a distant second encompassing 29.7% of the observations.



Table 4

## People Orientation Scores for Instructors

(n=37)

Range	f	%	cf	c%
13-15	2	5.4	37	100.0
10-12	19	51.4	35	94.6
7-9	11	29.7	16	43.2
4-6	3	8.1	5	13.5
1-3	2	5.4	2	5.4

Coaches (Table 5) loaded the 10 to 12 frequency range with 56.8% of the observations. The 7 to 9 frequency range was a distant second containing 24.3% of the observations.

In comparing the two groups, ranges 1 to 3, 4 to 6, and 13 to 15 contained the smallest percentage the observations. One noticeable difference between coaches and instructors (Tables 4 and 5) is that coaches had 0% or no observations within the 13-15 frequency interval.

Table 5  
People Orientation Scores for Coaches (n = 38)

Range	f	%	cf	c%
13-15	0	0	0	0
10-12	21	56.8	38	100.0
7-9	9	24.3	17	45.9
4-6	5	13.5	8	21.6
1-3	3	8.1	3	8.1

Descriptive statistics for task orientation scores for all subjects are presented in Table 6. The overall arithmetic mean for task was 12.12. The standard deviation, which represents, approximately, the average deviation of scores from the mean, was 3.74. The standard error of the mean (S.E.M.) reflects how much confidence we have in our sample mean as a population estimate. A small standard error of the mean suggests that all sample means based on a sample size of N cluster closely around the true population mean. If there is a large standard error of the mean then sample means based on sample sizes of N vary widely (Jaccard, 1983). For the total group the standard error of the mean on the task

variable was .432. The minimum score was 2 and the maximum obtained value was 20.

Table 6  
Descriptive Statistics for Task  
Orientation and People Orientation  
For the Combined Sample

(N=75)

	M	S.D.	S.E.M.	Min.	Max.
Task	12.12	3.74	.432	2	20
People	8.96	2.57	.297	2	13

The mean people orientation score for the entire sample was 8.69 with a standard deviation of 2.57. The standard error of the mean was .297. A minimum score of 2 and a maximum of 13 were observed on this variable. A 95% confidence interval was computed for the task variable. Based upon this, the true population mean should fall somewhere between 11.26 and 12.98. For the people orientation variable the 95% confidence interval estimates that the true population mean lies somewhere between 8.37 and 9.55, an acceptably narrow range of estimation.

Descriptive statistics for instructors and coaches on the task orientation and people orientation variable are found in Tables 7 and 8. Table 7 indicates that the mean task score for instructors was 10.92 with a standard deviation of 3.57. With a standard error of the mean of .587 the resultant interval of estimation of the true population mean at the 95% confidence level is  $10.92 \pm 1.19$  or from 9.73 to 12.11. This estimate is acceptable but is not as precise as the investigator would like due to the wide range of scores (2 to 18).

Table 7  
Descriptive Statistics for Task  
Orientation and People Orientation  
Scores for Instructors

(n=37)

	M	S.D.	S.E.M.	Min.	Max.
Task	10.92	3.57	.587	2	18
People	9.19	2.44	.401	3	13

As a comparison, task orientation statistics for coaches are presented in Table 8. The mean of 13.29 is considerably higher than that for the instructors. The standard deviation was 3.56 with the standard error of the mean computed as .578. The 95% confidence interval for estimating the true population mean ranged from 12.12 to 14.46. This interval is somewhat smaller than that for the instructors indicating less variability in the data. Scores for coaches ranged from a low of 7 to a high of 20, the maximum score possible.

Table 8  
Descriptive Statistics for Task  
Orientation and People Orientation  
Scores for Coaches

(n=38)

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	M	S.D.	S.E.M.	Min.	Max.
Task	13.29	3.56	.578	7	20
People	8.74	2.71	.439	2	12

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Descriptive statistics for the people orientation variable are also found in Tables 7 and 8 for instructors and coaches, respectively. A sample mean of 9.19 was computed for instructors with a standard deviation of 2.44 and standard error of the mean of .401. Instructors' scores ranged from 3 to 13. These values result in an acceptable interval estimate of 8.38 to 10.00. Coaches (Table 8) had a mean score of 8.74 with a standard deviation of 2.71. A standard error of the mean of .439 was computed. Coaches varied widely on scores with a minimum of 2 and a maximum of 12. Population mean estimates were computed to be between 7.85 and 9.63 at the 95% confidence interval.

Tables 9 and 10 present the results of two-tailed  $t$ -tests for independent samples. A significant difference was found between instructors and coaches (Table 9) concerning the task variable with coaches scoring significantly higher ( $p \leq .05$ ). A  $t$  score of -2.88 was computed with 73 degrees of freedom. No significant difference, however, was noted on the people orientation variable (See Table 10). A  $t$  statistic of .76 with 73 degrees of freedom was computed.

Table 9  
Results of the T-Test for Independent  
Samples for Task Variable

	N	M	SD	SEM	df	t
Instructors	37	10.92	3.57	.587	73	-2.88*
Coaches	38	13.29	3.56	.578		

\*p<.001

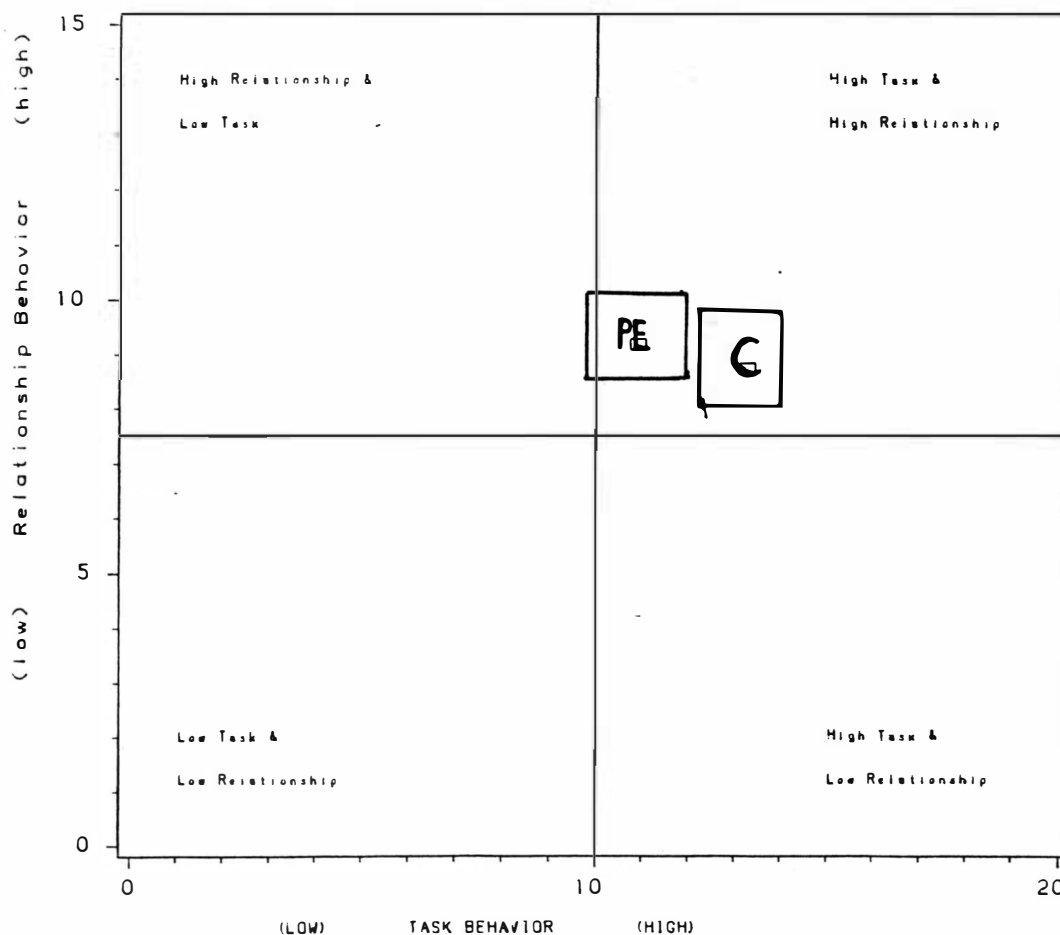
Table 10  
Results of the t-Test for Independent  
Samples for the Variable People

	n	M	S.D.	S.E.M.	df	t
Instructors	37	9.19	2.44	.401	73	.76
Coaches	38	8.74	2.71	.439		

For descriptive purposes the data are plotted in various form on the Ohio State Leadership grid in Figures 1, 2, and 3. Figure 1 illustrates the combined task-people score for both groups with the computed bounds on the estimate presented previously.

Figure 1

The Mean Leadership Styles for Instructors  
and Coaches on the Ohio  
State Leadership Quadrant





These values place both groups in the high task and high relationship grid. However, coaches tend to be more to the right of the quadrant as a result of a somewhat higher mean task orientation score. It should also be noted that with the computed bound on the estimate physical educators cross over the line between high and low task behavior.

Figure 2 represents the distribution of leadership style scores for physical education instructors. Most observations are in the upper right quadrant (high task, high relationship). The second highest number of observations appear in the high relationship and low task sector.

Figure 2

### Distribution of Leadership Styles for College Physical Education Instructors

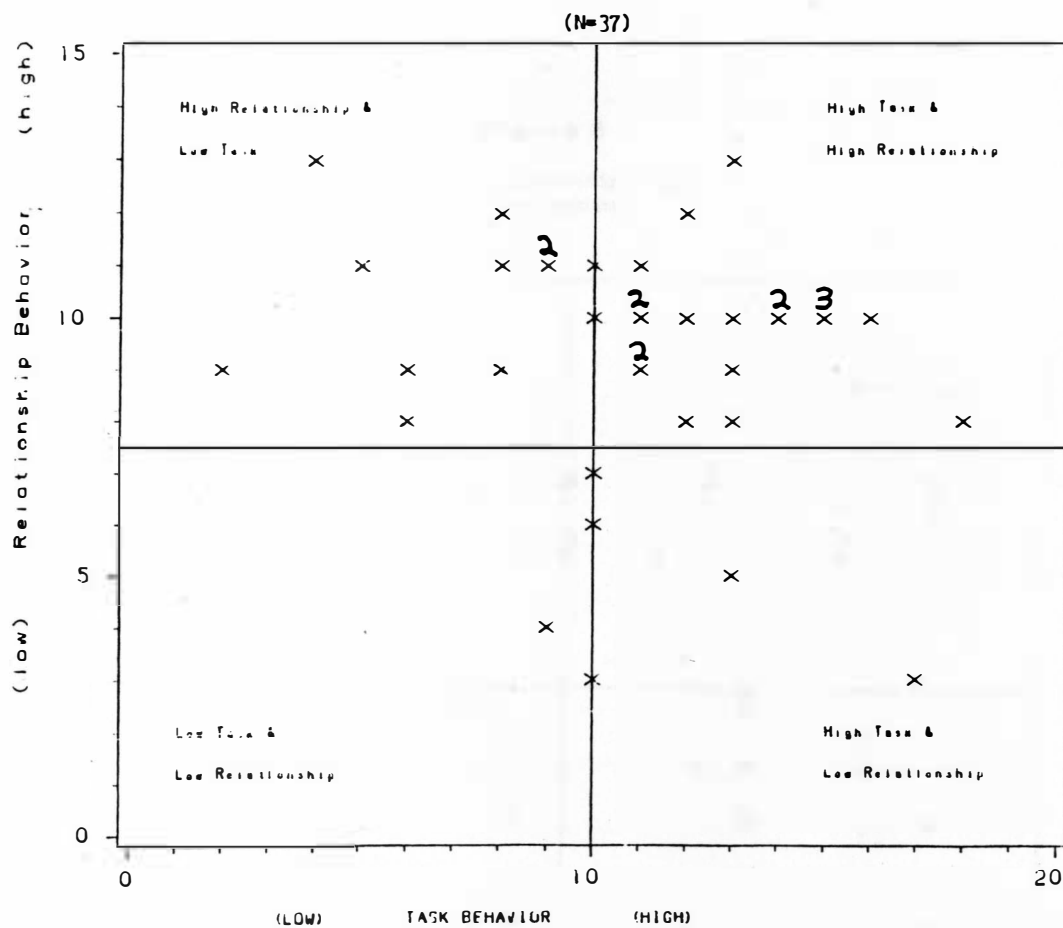
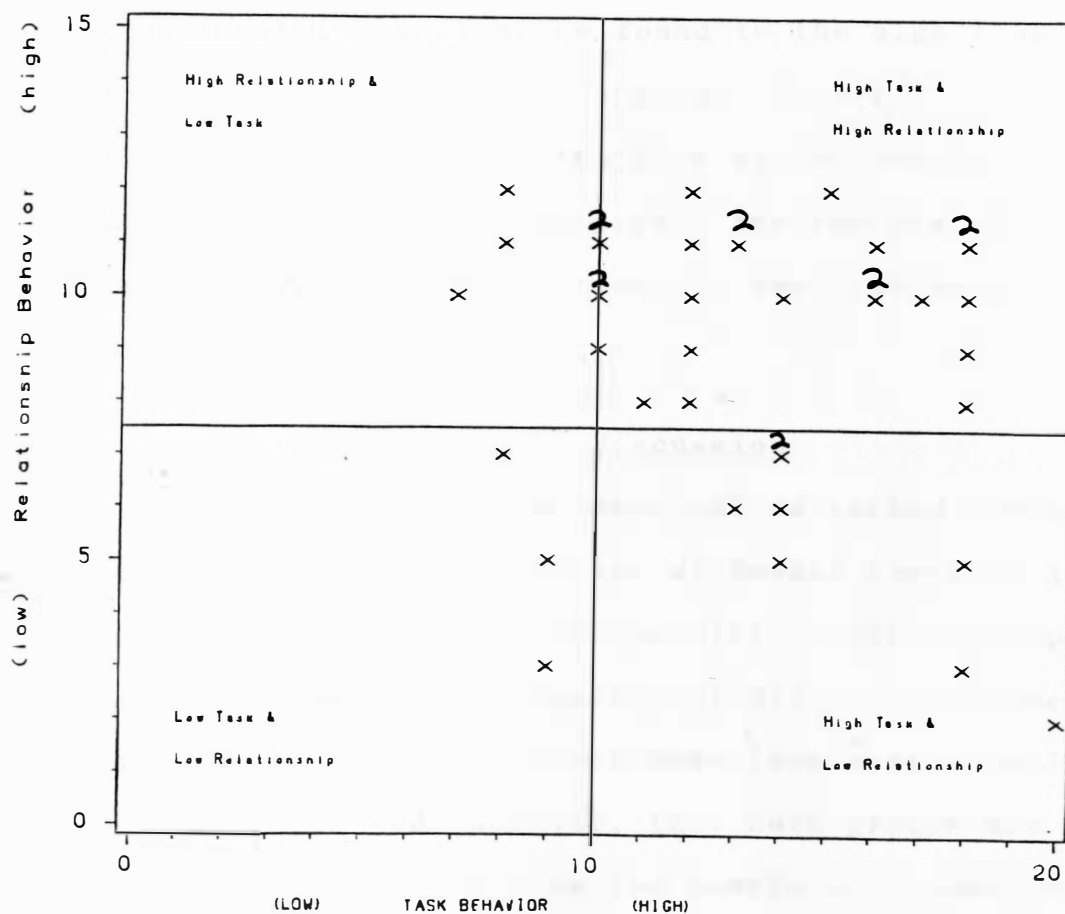


Figure 3 represents the distribution of leadership scores for coaches. Most observations, by far (19), are found in the high task and high relationship grid. The second

highest number of observations (8) appear in the high task and low relationship quadrant. Three observations lie on the line between the high task, high relationship grid and the high relationship, low task grid.

Figure 3

Distribution of Leadership Styles  
for College Coaches  
(N=38)



At first glance the distribution of coaches and physical education instructors, as indicated in Figures 1 to 3, appears to be quite similar. The mean leadership style of coaches and instructors are soundly rooted in the high task and high relationship grid. Also, as can be seen in Figures 2 and 3, 51.4% of the instructors and 50% of the coaches fall in the high task and high relationship sector. The primary difference between the two groups which resulted in the significant t-test, can be found in the high task and low relationship portion of the grid. Figure 3 (coaches) indicates that 21.6% of the observation are found in the high task and low relationship grid. Instructors (Figure 2) placed 27% of the observations in the high relationship and low task grid.

### Discussion

It would appear that physical education teaching and football coaching require two different types of leaders. In both professions relationships with people are important and statistics show a non-significant difference between the two groups as evidenced by their mean people orientation scores. It should be noted, however, that both groups are much higher in people orientation than the sample of coaches surveyed by Brooks (1982). Brooks reported a mean people orientation for coaches of 6.86 as compared to 9.19 and 8.74 for the physical education instructors and coaches, respectively in the

present study. Anderson (1986) observed a somewhat higher mean people orientation score of 10.2 for a sample of NCAA Division II head football coaches. The significant difference between teachers and coaches in this study was noted on the task orientation variable. Coaches were significantly higher in task orientation than physical education instructors. The mean scores found here ( $M = 10.92$  for instructors;  $M = 13.92$  for coaches) are lower than the value reported by Brooks (1982), but are comparable to Anderson (1986). Brooks computed a mean task score of 15.41 for the coaches surveyed. The mean task score from Anderson's study was 13.37.

Many reasons could account for the differences observed in the present study. Some investigators have speculated that the coaching profession is authoritarian (Ogilvie & Tutko, 1966; Campbell, 1969; Hendry, 1974; Pickman, 1980; Brooks, 1982; Murray, 1986). This may just be a label but some studies have shown that less social interaction and more task related behaviors could affect winning/losing and therefore keeping one's job (Case, 1982; Friedrichs, 1984).

Another reason for the significant difference in task orientation scores may be the social role a coach and a teacher engage in. "A social role is defined as a pattern of expected behaviors common to everyone who holds a specific

position in society" (Locke & Massengale, 1978, p. 162.) Perhaps the differences observed in this study can be attributed to the premise that patterns of expected behaviors are different for college football coaches and college physical education instructors (Locke & Massengale, 1978; Anderson, 1985). Athletic coaches after all, have long been considered the primary reason for the success or lack of success of their teams (Friedrichs, 1984).

Society perhaps has placed different demands and expectations on coaches as compared to teachers. These demands may include the pressure to win. Winning produces public appreciation and interest in the coach and his/her athletic team. More interest, in turn, leads to increased fan support and therefore more revenue in the form of gate receipts and donations. It is no wonder that coaches, under extreme pressure to win and operating under stringent time constraints, emerge as being more task oriented.

## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

The purpose of this study was to compare the perceived leadership styles of college football coaches and college physical education instructors. More specifically the study attempted to find similarities or differences between coaches and instructors on measured variables taken from the T-P Leadership Questionnaire.

The sample consisted of 75 college football coaches and physical education instructors within the North Central Conference. The sub-samples consisted of 37 physical education instructors and 38 football coaches. Instructors and coaches were measured on two variables, task orientation and people orientation using the T-P Leadership Questionnaire. Administration of the survey took place by mail.

The results of a Student's  $t$ -test for independent samples indicated a significant difference between coaches and instructors concerning the task orientation variable. Coaches were shown to be significantly higher at the .05 level of significance. No significant difference between the two groups was noted on the people orientation variable.

### Conclusions

The following conclusions are drawn from data collected during the Spring 1985 academic semester from 37 football coaches and 38 physical education instructors affiliated with 10 North Central Conference colleges and universities. As such, the reader should be cautioned against generalizing beyond the group assessed herein.

1. There was no difference in people orientation (P-score) as measured by the T-P Leadership Questionnaire between college football coaches and college physical education instructors.
2. There was a significant difference in task orientation (T-score) as measured by the T-P Leadership Questionnaire between college physical educators and college football coaches.
3. There was no difference in overall leadership style between college physical education instructors and college football coaches. According to group means, both groups lie in the high task and high relationship sector of the Ohio State Leadership grid.

### Recommendations

This study attempted to compare the leadership styles of two professions. At one time in history "coach" and



"physical educator" were synonymous terms. However, with increased specialization and increased pressure on coaches to succeed, the two groups have grown steadily apart. This is evident by the fact that teachers and coaches were significantly different concerning task orientation scores.

The study of leadership in physical education and athletics is still in its infancy. It remains a fertile area of investigation. However, before further studies are undertaken it is recommended that researchers arrive at a consensus regarding the instruments to be employed in data collection. Few instruments exist where acceptable validity and reliability have been established. Before further studies are undertaken instruments such as the T-P Leadership Questionnaire must be validated by comparing leaders' responses to observed behavior or to the responses of their followers regarding the perceived behavior of the leader (so called self-other studies). While it is acknowledged that such efforts would be time consuming and filled with methodological problems of their own, it is essential that we make the effort. Until adequate validity of the instrumentation has been established we will continue to deal in the realm of perceived behavior which may or may not have a relationship to reality.

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## APPENDIX A

## T-P LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Reproduced with permission from  
 A Handbook of Structured Experiences for  
 Human Relations Training, Volume 1  
 J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones, Editors  
 San Diego: UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATES Publisher, Inc., 1974

NAME

COLLEGE or UNIVERSITY

The following items describe aspects of leadership behavior. Respond to each item according to the way you be most likely to act if you were the leader of a coaching staff. Circle whether you would be likely to behave in the described way always (A), frequently (F), occasionally (O), seldom (S), or never (N).

As Head Football Coach when I am the leader of the staff....

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | F | O | S | N | 1. I act as spokesperson for the group.                                   |
| A | F | O | S | N | 2. I encourage overtime work.   |
| A | F | O | S | N | 3. I allow staff members complete freedom in their work.                  |
| A | F | O | S | N | 4. I encourage the use of uniform procedures.                             |
| A | F | O | S | N | 5. I permit staff members to use their own judgement in solving problems. |
| A | F | O | S | N | 6. I stress keeping ahead of competing groups.                            |
| A | F | O | S | N | 7. I speak as a representative of the staff.                              |
| A | F | O | S | N | 8. I needle members for greater effort.                                   |
| A | F | O | S | N | 9. I test my ideas by presenting them to the staff.                       |
| A | F | O | S | N | 10. I let the staff do their work the way they think best.                |
| A | F | O | S | N | 11. I am working hard for a promotion.                                    |
| A | F | O | S | N | 12. I am able to tolerate postponement and uncertainty.                   |
| A | F | O | S | N | 13. I speak for the staff when visitors are present.                      |
| A | F | O | S | N | 14. I keep the work moving at a rapid pace.                               |
| A | F | O | S | N | 15. I turn the staff loose on a job and let them go to it.                |
| A | F | O | S | N | 16. I settle conflicts when they occur in the staff.                      |

OVER



As Head Football Coach when I am the leader of the staff....

- |   |   |   |   |   |     |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|-----|--|
| A | F | O | S | N | 17. | I get swamped by details.  |
| A | F | O | S | N | 18. | I represent the staff at outside meetings.                                     |
| A | F | O | S | N | 19. | I am reluctant to allow the staff freedom of action.                           |
| A | F | O | S | N | 20. | I decide what shall be done and how it shall be done.                          |
| A | F | O | S | N | 21. | I push for increased production.   |
| A | F | O | S | N | 22. | I would let some of the staff have authority.                                  |
| A | F | O | S | N | 23. | Things usually turn out the way I predict.                                     |
| A | F | O | S | N | 24. | I allow the staff a high degree of initiative.                                 |
| A | F | O | S | N | 25. | I assign staff members to particular tasks.                                    |
| A | F | O | S | N | 26. | I am willing to make changes.  |
| A | F | O | S | N | 27. | I trust the staff to exercise good judgment.                                   |
| A | F | O | S | N | 28. | I ask the staff to work harder when necessary.                                 |
| A | F | O | S | N | 29. | I schedule the work to be done.  |
| A | F | O | S | N | 30. | I refuse to explain my actions.  |
| A | F | O | S | N | 31. | I persuade others that my ideas are to their advantage.                        |
| A | F | O | S | N | 32. | I permit the staff to set its own pace.  |
| A | F | O | S | N | 33. | I urge the staff to do better than its previous performance on a similar task. |
| A | F | O | S | N | 34. | I act without consulting the staff.  |
| A | F | O | S | N | 35. | I ask that staff members follow standard rules and regulations.                |

T \_\_\_\_\_ P \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for participating in this study.

## APPENDIX B

## T-P Leadership Questionnaire Scoring Instructions

1. Circle the item number for items 8, 12, 17, 18, 19, 30, 34, and 35.
2. Write the number 1 in front of a circled item number if you respond S (seldom) or N (never) to that item.
3. Also write a number 1 in front of item numbers not circled if you responded A (always) or F (frequently).
4. Circle the number 1's which you have written in front of the following items: 3, 5, 8, 10, 15, 18, 19, 22, 24, 26, 27, 30, 32, 34, and 35.
5. Count the circled number 1's. This is your score for concern for people. Record the score in the blank following the letter P at the end of the questionnaire.
6. Count the uncircled number 1's. This is your score for concern for task. Record this number in the blank following the letter T.

## APPENDIX C

## Introductory Letter



SOUTH DAKOTA STATE UNIVERSITY  
Box 2820  
Brookings, SD 57007-1497

College of Arts and Science  
Department of Health, Physical Education  
and Recreation  
(605) 688-5625

27 March 1985

Dear Sir or Madam:

To introduce myself, my name is Randy R. Megard and I am a graduate student in HPER at South Dakota State University in Brookings, South Dakota. I am writing to solicit your cooperation with my thesis research.

My study involves the comparison of leadership styles between college physical education instructors and college football coaches. To measure leadership styles I am employing an instrument called the T-P Leadership Questionnaire. I chose the T-P Leadership Questionnaire partly because of its brevity and also because of its widespread use in assessing leadership behavior.

I realize this is an imposition on your time, and for this I apologize. Please realize that this research is important to me and that your response is critical to the integrity of the study. In about a week you will be receiving the questionnaire packet. The packet will contain one questionnaire, a "results wanted" request form, a cover letter and a self-addressed stamped envelope for your convenience. If you would like a copy of the results please complete the request form and return it with the completed questionnaire.

Your cooperation in this matter would be greatly appreciated. Thank you very much.

Sincerely,

Randy R. Megard

SDSU Dept. of HPER

## APPENDIX D

## Endorsement



SOUTH DAKOTA STATE UNIVERSITY  
Box 2820  
Brookings, SD 57007-1497

College of Arts and Science  
Department of Health, Physical Education  
and Recreation  
(605) 688-5625

April 2, 1985

Dear Sir or Madam:

Mr. Randy Megard, a candidate for the Master of Science degree at South Dakota State University, is soliciting your cooperation as part of his master's thesis. Mr. Megard is studying leadership behavior in physical education and athletics and we feel that his thesis will make a significant contribution to this area. Your participation will enhance the significance of the work.

The purpose of this letter is to certify that Mr. Randy Megard has the approval and full support of the Department of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation and South Dakota State University in his research. We thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

James F. Lidstone, Ed. D.  
Coordinator of HPER Research

JEL:ga

Enclosures

## APPENDIX E

## Cover Letter



SOUTH DAKOTA STATE UNIVERSITY  
Box 2820  
Brookings, SD 57007-1497

College of Arts and Science  
Department of Health, Physical Education  
and Recreation  
(605) 688-5625

3 April 1985

Dear

Enclosed is a copy of the T-P Leadership Questionnaire, which I promised to send. For your convenience, I have enclosed a self-addressed stamped envelope.

Physical education and athletics in today's society has become more specialized. I am interested in the aspect of leadership specialization because of the different demands that seem to be placed on each area. A person's role, whether teacher or coach, could translate to a certain leadership style.

Once the results have been tabulated, I would be pleased to share them with you. If results are desired, please check the space marked "yes" on the results request form and print your name on the form. Enclose this form in the same envelope with the completed questionnaire.

In your busy schedule, I hope you can find a few moments to complete the questionnaire. Your cooperation is appreciated. Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely yours,

Randy R. Megard

## APPENDIX F

## The Data

Instructors

Task	Person	Task	Person	Task	Person
11	10	16	10	15	10
9	11	2	9	10	11
9	11	8	9	10	10
4	13	15	10	9	4
12	8	18	8	10	7
12	12	13	9	5	11
15	10	11	11	10	6
12	10	6	8	8	11
11	10	11	9	13	13
11	9	14	10	13	5
13	8	17	3	8	12
14	10	6	9	10	3
13	10				

Coaches

Task	Person	Task	Person	Task	Person
20	2	12	12	13	6
10	10	9	3	18	8
18	9	8	11	18	10
18	11	14	10	8	7
10	11	12	8	10	10
15	12	18	11	17	10
18	5	10	9	13	11
14	5	12	11	16	11
9	5	12	10	12	9
10	11	7	10	11	8
8	12	14	7	13	11
16	10	14	7	16	10
18	3	14	6		